

## ON THE CAYLEY DEGREE OF AN ALGEBRAIC GROUP

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ABSTRACT. A connected linear algebraic group  $G$  is called a *Cayley group* if the Lie algebra of  $G$  endowed with the adjoint  $G$ -action and the group variety of  $G$  endowed with the conjugation  $G$ -action are birationally  $G$ -isomorphic. In particular, the classical Cayley map

$$X \mapsto (I_n - X)(I_n + X)^{-1}$$

between the special orthogonal group  $\mathbf{SO}_n$  and its Lie algebra  $\mathfrak{so}_n$ , shows that  $\mathbf{SO}_n$  is a Cayley group. In an earlier paper we classified the simple Cayley groups defined over an algebraically closed field of characteristic zero. Here we consider a new numerical invariant of  $G$ , the *Cayley degree*, which “measures” how far  $G$  is from being Cayley, and prove upper bounds on Cayley degrees of some groups.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Let  $G$  be a connected linear algebraic group and let  $\mathfrak{g}$  be its Lie algebra. We say that  $G$  is a *Cayley group* if there is a birational isomorphism

$$\varphi: G \dashrightarrow \mathfrak{g} \tag{1}$$

which is equivariant with respect to the conjugation action of  $G$  on itself and the adjoint action of  $G$  on  $\mathfrak{g}$ ; see [LPR, Definition 1.5]. In particular, the classical Cayley map [C]

$$X \mapsto (I_n - X)(I_n + X)^{-1} \tag{2}$$

between the special orthogonal group  $\mathbf{SO}_n$  and its Lie algebra  $\mathfrak{so}_n$  shows that  $\mathbf{SO}_n$  is a Cayley group. (The same formula shows that  $\mathbf{Sp}_{2n}$  is Cayley as well.) In the sequel we will always assume that the base field  $k$  is algebraically closed and of characteristic zero. (Problem 1 below is of interest for arbitrary  $k$  but the partial answers we would like to discuss here require this assumption.)

In 1975 D. Luna [L<sub>1</sub>], [L<sub>3</sub>] asked the second-named author a question that, in the above terminology, can be restated as follows: For what  $n$  is the group  $\mathbf{SL}_n$  Cayley? In [LPR] we showed that  $\mathbf{SL}_n$  is Cayley if and only if  $n \leq 3$  and, more generally, proved the following classification theorem.

**Theorem 1.** ([LPR, Theorem 3.31(a)]) *A connected simple algebraic group  $G$  is Cayley if and only if  $G$  is isomorphic to one of the following groups:  $\mathbf{SL}_2$ ,  $\mathbf{SL}_3$ ,  $\mathbf{SO}_n$  ( $n \neq 2, 4$ ),  $\mathbf{Sp}_{2n}$ ,  $\mathbf{PGL}_n$  ( $n \geq 1$ ).*

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Note that  $\mathbf{SO}_n$  is a Cayley group for every  $n \geq 1$ ; we have excluded  $\mathbf{SO}_2$  and  $\mathbf{SO}_4$  from the above list because these groups are not simple.

A *generalized Cayley map* of  $G$  is a rational  $G$ -equivariant map  $\varphi: G \dashrightarrow \mathfrak{g}$ , as in (1), except that instead of requiring it to be a birational isomorphism, we only require it to be dominant, see [LPR, Definition 10.9]. Every generalized Cayley map of  $G$  has finite degree,

$$\deg \varphi = [k(G) : \varphi^*(k(\mathfrak{g}))] < \infty,$$

where, as usual,  $k(X)$  and  $k[X]$  denote respectively the field of rational and the algebra of regular functions on an irreducible algebraic variety  $X$ ). A generalized Cayley map (1) exists for every linear algebraic group  $G$ ; see [LPR, Proposition 10.5]. Hence the following natural number is well defined.

**Definition 1.** The *Cayley degree*  $\text{Cay}(G)$  of  $G$  is the minimal value of  $\deg \varphi$ , as  $\varphi$  ranges over all generalized Cayley maps of  $G$ .

Note that, by definition,  $G$  is a Cayley group if and only if  $\text{Cay}(G) = 1$ . Therefore Theorem 1 may be viewed as a first step toward a solution of the following more general problem.

**Problem 1.** *Find the Cayley degrees of connected simple algebraic groups.*

We do not have any general methods for proving lower bounds on the Cayley degree, beyond those provided by Theorem 1; in particular, we do not have an example of a linear algebraic group  $G$  with  $\text{Cay}(G) > 2$ . Thus in this note we will primarily concentrate on upper bounds. Our main results are Theorems 2 and 3 below.

**Theorem 2.** *If  $n \geq 3$ , then  $\text{Cay}(\mathbf{SL}_n) \leq n - 2$ .*

Our proof of Theorem 2 is self-contained. For  $n = 3$  this argument gives a new proof of the fact that  $\text{Cay}(\mathbf{SL}_3) = 1$  (i.e.,  $\mathbf{SL}_3$  is a Cayley group), which is simpler than either of the two proofs in [LPR]. For  $n = 4$ , Theorem 2 implies that  $\text{Cay}(\mathbf{SL}_4) = 2$ ; see Example 4.

To motivate our second main result, we note that the exceptional group  $\mathbf{G}_2$  plays a special role in this theory. While  $\mathbf{G}_2$  is not a Cayley group, it is close to being one, in the sense that  $\mathbf{G}_2 \times \mathbf{G}_m^2$  is Cayley; see [LPR, Theorem 1.31(b)]. In fact,  $\mathbf{G}_2$  is the unique simple group  $G$  which is stably Cayley but is not Cayley; see [LPR, Theorems 1.29 and 1.31]. (Recall that  $G$  is called *stably Cayley* if  $G \times \mathbf{G}_m^r$  is Cayley for some  $r \geq 1$ .) Theorem 3 below shows that  $\mathbf{G}_2$  is also close to being Cayley in the sense of having a small Cayley degree.

**Theorem 3.**  $\text{Cay}(\mathbf{G}_2) = 2$ .

The rest of this note is structured as follows. In Section 2 we determine the Cayley degrees of Spin groups and some groups of type A. In Section 3 we prove a lemma that reduces the computation of the Cayley degree of a reductive group  $G$  to a question about finite group actions. This lemma is then used as a starting point for the proofs of Theorems 2 and 3 in Sections 4 and 5 respectively. In Section 6 we give a representation theoretic interpretation of the Cayley degree.

## 2. FIRST EXAMPLES

**Lemma 1.** (a) *Let  $\pi: G \rightarrow H$  be an isogeny between connected linear algebraic groups and let  $d$  be the order of its kernel.*

(a<sub>1</sub>) *Then*

$$\text{Cay}(G) \leq d \cdot \text{Cay}(H).$$

(a<sub>2</sub>) *If  $G$  is not Cayley but  $H$  is Cayley, and  $d = 2$ , then  $\text{Cay}(G) = 2$ .*

(b) *Let  $\varphi_i$  be a generalized Cayley map of a connected linear algebraic group  $G_i$ , where  $i = 1, \dots, n$ . Then  $\varphi_1 \times \dots \times \varphi_n$  is a generalized Cayley map of  $G_1 \times \dots \times G_n$ , and*

$$\deg(\varphi_1 \times \dots \times \varphi_n) = \deg \varphi_1 \dots \deg \varphi_n.$$

*Proof.* (a<sub>1</sub>) The groups  $G$  and  $H$  have the same Lie algebra  $\mathfrak{g}$ . Let  $\varphi: H \dashrightarrow \mathfrak{g}$  be a generalized Cayley map of  $H$ . Since  $\text{Ker } \pi$  is a finite central subgroup of  $G$  and  $\deg \pi = d$ , the composition  $\varphi \circ \pi: G \dashrightarrow \mathfrak{g}$  is a generalized Cayley map of  $G$ . Its degree is  $d \cdot \deg \varphi$ , and part (a<sub>1</sub>) follows.

(a<sub>2</sub>) Since  $G$  is not Cayley, we have  $\text{Cay}(G) \geq 2$ . The opposite inequality follows from part (a<sub>1</sub>).

Part (b) follows from the interpretation of degree of a rational map as the number of points in a general fiber.  $\square$

From (b) and Definition 1 we obtain the following upper bound.

**Corollary 1.**  $\text{Cay}(G_1 \times \dots \times G_n) \leq \text{Cay}(G_1) \dots \text{Cay}(G_n)$ .

The following example shows that, in general, equality does not hold.

**Example 1.** Since  $\text{Cay}(\mathbf{G}_2) \geq 2$  by Theorem 1, but  $\text{Cay}(\mathbf{G}_2 \times \mathbf{G}_m^2) = 1$  (see [LPR, Theorem 1.31]), we see that

$$\text{Cay}(\mathbf{G}_2 \times \mathbf{G}_m^2) < \text{Cay}(\mathbf{G}_2) \cdot \text{Cay}(\mathbf{G}_m^2).$$

(In fact, the right hand side of this inequality is equal to 2, because  $\text{Cay}(\mathbf{G}_2) = 2$  by Theorem 2 and  $\text{Cay}(\mathbf{G}_m^2) = 1$ ; see [LPR, Example 1.21].)

**Example 2.** (see [LPR, p. 962]) The groups

$$\mathbf{Spin}_2 \simeq \mathbb{G}_m, \quad \mathbf{Spin}_3 \simeq \mathbf{SL}_2, \quad \mathbf{Spin}_4 \simeq \mathbf{SL}_2 \times \mathbf{SL}_2, \quad \mathbf{Spin}_5 \simeq \mathbf{Sp}_4$$

are easily seen to be Cayley. On the other hand,  $\mathbf{Spin}_n$  is not Cayley if  $n \geq 6$ . Since  $\mathbf{SO}_n$  is Cayley for every  $n$ , applying Lemma 1(b) to the natural 2-sheeted isogeny  $\mathbf{Spin}_n \rightarrow \mathbf{SO}_n$  (where  $n \geq 6$ ), we obtain

$$\text{Cay}(\mathbf{Spin}_n) = \begin{cases} 2 & \text{for } n \geq 6, \\ 1 & \text{for } n \leq 5. \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

**Example 3.** Since  $\mathbf{PGL}_n$  is a Cayley group for every  $n \geq 1$ , Lemma 1, applied to the natural isogeny  $\mathbf{SL}_n/\mu_d =: G \rightarrow H := \mathbf{PGL}_n$  yields

$$\text{Cay}(\mathbf{SL}_n/\mu_d) \leq n/d. \quad (4)$$

In particular,

$$\text{Cay}(\mathbf{SL}_{2d}/\mu_d) = \begin{cases} 2 & \text{for } d \geq 3, \\ 1 & \text{for } d \leq 2. \end{cases}$$

Note also that setting  $d = 1$  in (4) yields  $\text{Cay}(\mathbf{SL}_n) \leq n$ . Theorem 2 strengthens this bound.

## 3. THE MAXIMAL TORUS

In this section we reduce the problem of finding  $\text{Cay}(G)$  for a connected reductive group  $G$ , to a question about finite group actions.

**Lemma 2.** *Let  $G$  be a connected linear algebraic group, let  $T$  be its maximal torus, let  $C$  and  $N$  be the centralizer and normalizer of  $T$  in  $G$  respectively, and let  $W := N/C$  be the Weyl group. Denote the Lie algebras of  $G$ ,  $T$ , and  $C$  by  $\mathfrak{g}$ ,  $\mathfrak{t}$ , and  $\mathfrak{c}$ , respectively.*

(a) *Then*

$$\text{Cay}(G) = \min_{\psi} \deg \psi, \quad (5)$$

*where  $\psi$  ranges over all dominant rational  $N$ -equivariant maps  $C \dashrightarrow \mathfrak{c}$ .*

(b) *Moreover, if  $G$  is reductive, then (5) holds, where  $\psi$  ranges over all  $W$ -equivariant dominant rational maps  $T \dashrightarrow \mathfrak{t}$ .*

*Proof.* Recall that  $G \simeq G \times^N C$  and  $\mathfrak{g} \simeq G \times^N \mathfrak{c}$ , where  $\simeq$  stands for a birational isomorphism of  $G$ -varieties. Moreover, if  $\varphi: G \times^N C \dashrightarrow G \times^N \mathfrak{c}$  is a dominant rational  $G$ -map, then  $\psi := \varphi|_C: C \dashrightarrow \mathfrak{c}$  is a dominant rational  $N$ -map and  $\varphi^{-1}(x) = \psi^{-1}(x)$  for a general point  $x \in \mathfrak{c}$ ; see [LPR, Lemma 2.17]. Hence

$$\deg \varphi = |\varphi^{-1}(x)| = |\psi^{-1}(x)| = \deg \psi. \quad (6)$$

Thus we have a degree preserving bijection between generalized Cayley maps of  $G$  and dominant rational  $N$ -equivariant maps  $C \dashrightarrow \mathfrak{c}$ . This immediately implies (a). If  $G$  is reductive, then  $C = T$ ,  $\mathfrak{c} = \mathfrak{t}$ , and the  $N$ -actions on  $C$  and  $\mathfrak{c}$  descend to the  $W$ -actions (since  $T$ , being commutative, acts trivially). Hence part (b) follows from part (a).  $\square$

**Corollary 2.** *Let  $\varphi$  be a generalized Cayley map of a connected reductive group  $G$ . Then  $\deg \varphi = [k(G)^G : \varphi^*(k(\mathfrak{g})^G)]$ .*

*Proof.* We will continue to use the notations of Lemma 2 and set  $\psi := \varphi|_T$ . Since  $W$  is a finite group acting on  $T$  and  $\mathfrak{t}$  faithfully, we have  $[k(T) : k(T)^W] = |W|$  and  $[k(\mathfrak{t}) : k(\mathfrak{t})^W] = |W|$ . From this we deduce that  $\deg \psi := [k(T) : \psi^*(k(\mathfrak{t}))] = [k(T)^W : \psi^*(k(\mathfrak{t})^W)]$ . Since we have  $[k(T)^W : \psi^*(k(\mathfrak{t})^W)] = [k(G)^G : \varphi^*(k(\mathfrak{g})^G)]$ , see [P, Theorem (1.7.5)], [LPR, (3.4)], the claim now follows from (6).  $\square$

**Remark 1.** If  $\varphi$  is a morphism, Corollary 2 can be deduced from [L<sub>3</sub>, Lemme Fondamental]. For certain particular morphisms  $\varphi$ , a proof can be found in [KM, Corollary (3.3)].

## 4. PROOF OF THEOREM 2

By Lemma 2 it suffices to construct a dominant rational  $W = \text{S}_n$ -equivariant map between the maximal torus  $T$  in  $\mathbf{SL}_n$  and its Lie algebra  $\mathfrak{t}$ .

To keep the notation clear in the construction to follow, we will work with two copies of the affine space  $\mathbb{A}^n$ , with the same natural (permutation) action of  $\text{S}_n$ . We will denote one by  $\mathbb{A}_x^n$  and the other by  $\mathbb{A}_y^n$  and use the variables  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  and, respectively,  $y_1, \dots, y_n$  as standard coordinate functions on  $\mathbb{A}_x^n$  and  $\mathbb{A}_y^n$ . We will now embed  $\mathfrak{t}$  and, respectively,  $T$  into  $\mathbb{A}_x^n$  and  $\mathbb{A}_y^n$  as the following  $\text{S}_n$ -invariant subvarieties:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathfrak{t} &= \{(a_1, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{A}_x^n \mid a_1 + \dots + a_n = 0\}, \\ T &= \{(b_1, \dots, b_n) \in \mathbb{A}_y^n \mid b_1 \dots b_n = 1\}. \end{aligned}$$

Consider the mutually inverse  $S_n$ -equivariant rational maps  $\varphi: \mathbb{A}_x^n \rightarrow \mathbb{A}_y^n$  and  $\psi: \mathbb{A}_y^n \rightarrow \mathbb{A}_x^n$  given by

$$\varphi := \left( \frac{x_1 + 1}{x_1}, \dots, \frac{x_n + 1}{x_n} \right) \quad \text{and} \quad \psi := \left( \frac{1}{y_1 - 1}, \dots, \frac{1}{y_n - 1} \right).$$

These maps give rise to a (biregular) isomorphism between the open subsets

$$U_x := \{(a_1, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{A}_x^n \mid a_1 \dots a_n \neq 0\}$$

and

$$U_y := \{(b_1, \dots, b_n) \in \mathbb{A}_y^n \mid (b_1 - 1) \dots (b_n - 1) \neq 0\}$$

in  $\mathbb{A}_x^n$  and  $\mathbb{A}_y^n$  respectively. Substituting  $y_i = \frac{x_i + 1}{x_i}$  into the equation  $y_1 \dots y_n - 1 = 0$  of  $T$ , we see that  $\psi(T \cap U_y) = X \cap U_x$ , where  $X$  is the hypersurface in  $\mathbb{A}_x^n$  cut out by the equation

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) := (x_1 + 1) \dots (x_n + 1) - x_1 \dots x_n = 0.$$

Since  $X \cap U_x$  is isomorphic to  $T \cap U_y$  (which is irreducible) and  $X$  does not contain any of the  $n$  components  $\{x_i = 0\}$  of the complement of  $U_x$ , we conclude that  $X$  is irreducible  $S_n$ -invariant hypersurface in  $\mathbb{A}_x^n$ . Hence  $f$  is a power of an irreducible polynomial. Since  $\deg f(1, \dots, 1, x_i, 1, \dots, 1) = 1$  for every  $i$ , we conclude that in fact  $f$  is irreducible. As  $\deg f = n - 1$ , this implies that  $X$  is a hypersurface of degree  $n - 1$ . By our construction  $X$  is birationally isomorphic to  $T$  (via  $\varphi$ ), as an  $S_n$ -variety.

Let  $\pi$  be the projection  $X \dashrightarrow \mathbf{t}$  from a point  $\mathbf{a} = (a, \dots, a) \in \mathbb{A}_x^n$ . That is, for any point  $\mathbf{b} \in X$ ,  $\mathbf{b} \neq \mathbf{a}$ , the point  $\pi(\mathbf{b})$  is the intersection point of the line passing through  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  with the hyperplane  $\mathbf{t} \subset \mathbb{A}_x^n$ . Moreover, we choose  $\mathbf{a}$  so that it lies on  $X$ . Note that this automatically means that it does not lie in  $\mathbf{t}$ . Indeed, since zero does not satisfy the equation

$$f(a, \dots, a) = (1 + a)^n - a^n = 0,$$

if  $\mathbf{a} \in X$ , then  $\mathbf{a}$  cannot lie in  $\mathbf{t}$ . Since our base field  $k$  is algebraically closed and of characteristic zero, such an  $a$  exists for every  $n \geq 2$ . Note that  $\pi$  is well-defined, unless  $X$  is a hyperplane parallel to  $\mathbf{t}$ . Since  $\deg X = n - 1$ , it is not a hyperplane for every  $n \geq 3$ . Thus  $\pi$  is well-defined for every  $n \geq 3$ . Note also that since  $\mathbf{a}$  is fixed by  $S_n$ , the map  $\pi$  is  $S_n$ -equivariant.

We claim that  $\pi: X \dashrightarrow \mathbf{t}$  is dominant. Since  $\pi$  is a projection map from a point on a hypersurface  $X$ , and  $\deg X = n - 1$ , this claim implies that  $\deg \pi = n - 2$ . Composing  $\pi$  with a birational isomorphism  $\psi: T \dashrightarrow X$ , we obtain an  $S_n$ -equivariant dominant rational map  $T \dashrightarrow \mathbf{t}$  of degree  $n - 2$ , and Theorem 2 is proved.

It remains to show that  $\pi$  is dominant. Assume the contrary. Let  $X_0$  be the closure of the image of  $\pi$  in  $\mathbf{t}$ . Then  $X$  is the cone over  $X_0$  centered at  $\mathbf{a}$ . Since, as we remarked above,  $X$  is not a hyperplane (we are assuming throughout that  $n \geq 3$ ),  $X$  has to be singular at  $\mathbf{a}$ . Consequently,  $a$  satisfies the system of equations

$$\begin{cases} f(\mathbf{a}) = (1 + a)^n - a^n = 0, \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(\mathbf{a}) = (1 + a)^{n-1} - a^{n-1} = 0. \end{cases}$$

But this system has no solutions, a contradiction. Theorem 2 is now proved.  $\square$

**Example 4.** By Theorem 2,  $\text{Cay}(\mathbf{SL}_4) \leq 2$ . Equivalently,  $\text{Cay}(\mathbf{SL}_4) = 2$ ; indeed, we know that  $\text{Cay}(\mathbf{SL}_4) \neq 1$ , i.e.,  $\mathbf{SL}_4$  is not a Cayley group by Theorem 1.

Since  $\mathbf{SL}_4/\mu_2 \simeq \mathbf{SO}_4$  is Cayley, the equality  $\text{Cay}(\mathbf{SL}_4) = 2$  can also be obtained by applying Lemma 1(b) to the isogeny  $\mathbf{SL}_4 \rightarrow \mathbf{SL}_4/\mu_2$ . Alternatively, since  $\mathbf{SL}_4 \simeq \mathbf{Spin}_6$ , the equality  $\text{Cay}(\mathbf{SL}_4) = 2$  is a special case of (3).

### 5. PROOF OF THEOREM 3

First recall that  $\mathbf{G}_2$  is not Cayley (see Theorem 1) and hence  $\text{Cay}(\mathbf{G}_2) \geq 2$ . Thus we only need to prove the opposite inequality. By Lemma 2 it suffices to construct a  $W$ -equivariant dominant rational map  $T \dashrightarrow \mathfrak{t}$  of degree 2, where  $T$  is a maximal torus of  $\mathbf{G}_2$ ,  $\mathfrak{t}$  is the Lie algebra of  $T$ , and  $W$  is the Weyl group.

Recall that  $W$  is isomorphic to  $S_3 \times \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ . Once again, we consider two copies of the 3-dimensional affine space,  $\mathbb{A}_x^3$  and  $\mathbb{A}_y^3$ , with the following  $W$ -actions. The symmetric group  $S_3$  acts on both copies in the natural way (by permuting the coordinates). The nontrivial element of  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$  acts on  $\mathbb{A}_x^3$  by

$$(a_1, a_2, a_3) \mapsto (-a_1, -a_2, -a_3),$$

and on  $\mathbb{A}_y^3$  by

$$(b_1, b_2, b_3) \mapsto \left( \frac{1}{b_1}, \frac{1}{b_2}, \frac{1}{b_3} \right).$$

We may (and shall) embed  $\mathfrak{t}$  and  $T$  into  $\mathbb{A}_x^3$  and  $\mathbb{A}_y^3$ , respectively, as the following  $W$ -invariant subvarieties:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathfrak{t} &= \{(a_1, a_2, a_3) \in \mathbb{A}_x^3 \mid a_1 + a_2 + a_3 = 0\}, \\ T &= \{(b_1, b_2, b_3) \in \mathbb{A}_y^3 \mid b_1 b_2 b_3 = 1\}. \end{aligned}$$

We now consider the mutually inverse  $W$ -equivariant rational maps  $\varphi: \mathbb{A}_x^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{A}_y^3$  and  $\psi: \mathbb{A}_y^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{A}_x^3$  given by

$$\varphi := \left( \frac{x_1 - 1}{x_1 + 1}, \frac{x_2 - 1}{x_2 + 1}, \frac{x_3 - 1}{x_3 + 1} \right) \quad \text{and} \quad \psi := \left( -\frac{y_1 + 1}{y_1 - 1}, -\frac{y_2 + 1}{y_2 - 1}, -\frac{y_3 + 1}{y_3 - 1} \right).$$

These maps give rise to a  $W$ -equivariant isomorphism between the open subsets

$$U_x := \{(a_1, a_2, a_3) \in \mathbb{A}_x^3 \mid (a_1 + 1)(a_2 + 1)(a_3 + 1) \neq 0\}$$

and

$$U_y := \{(b_1, b_2, b_3) \in \mathbb{A}_y^3 \mid (b_1 - 1)(b_2 - 1)(b_3 - 1) \neq 0\}$$

in  $\mathbb{A}_x^3$  and  $\mathbb{A}_y^3$ , respectively. Substituting  $y_i = \frac{x_i - 1}{x_i + 1}$  into the equation  $y_1 y_2 y_3 = 1$  of  $T$ , we see that  $\psi(T \cap U_y) = X \cap U_x$ , where  $X$  is the  $W$ -invariant quadric surface in  $\mathbb{A}_x^3$  defined by the equation

$$x_1 x_2 + x_2 x_3 + x_1 x_3 + 1 = 0.$$

Composing the  $W$ -equivariant birational isomorphism  $\psi: T \dashrightarrow \mathbb{A}_x^3$  with the  $W$ -invariant linear projection  $\alpha: X \rightarrow \mathfrak{t}$  given by

$$\alpha := \left( x_1 - \frac{x_1 + x_2 + x_3}{3}, x_2 - \frac{x_1 + x_2 + x_3}{3}, x_3 - \frac{x_1 + x_2 + x_3}{3} \right),$$

we obtain a desired  $W$ -equivariant rational map  $\alpha \circ \psi: T \dashrightarrow \mathfrak{t}$  of degree 2.  $\square$

**Remark 2.** The proofs of Theorems 2 and 3 proceed along similar lines: we begin by defining a birational isomorphism  $\psi$  between  $T$  and a hypersurface  $X$ , then project  $X$  onto  $\mathfrak{t}$ . Note, however, that the projections  $\pi$  (in the proof of Theorem 2) and  $\alpha$  (in the proof of Theorem 3) are different in the following sense:  $\pi$  is a projection from a point on  $X$ , and  $\alpha$  is a linear projection ( $\alpha$  may also be viewed as a projection from a point at infinity, which does not lie on  $X$ ). Note that  $\alpha$  cannot be replaced by a projection from a point of  $X$ , since  $X$  has no  $W$ -equivariant points (and also because otherwise  $\alpha$  would have degree 1 and our argument would show that  $\mathbf{G}_2$  is a Cayley group, which we know to be false).

**Remark 3.** The formula for  $\varphi$  is somewhat similar to the formula for the classical Cayley map (2). Note, however, that we cannot replace  $\frac{x_1 - 1}{x_1 + 1}$ ,  $\frac{x_2 - 1}{x_2 + 1}$ , etc. by  $\frac{1 - x_1}{x_1 + 1}$ ,  $\frac{1 - x_2}{x_2 + 1}$ , etc. in the definition of  $\varphi$ . If we do this, then, setting  $\psi = \varphi^{-1}$ , we see that the image of  $T$  under  $\psi$  becomes the cubic  $x_1x_2x_3 + x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 0$ , rather than the quadric  $x_1x_2 + x_2x_3 + x_1x_3 + 1 = 0$ , and the above argument gives a generalized Cayley map of degree 3, rather than 2.

## 6. A REPRESENTATION THEORETIC APPROACH

In conclusion we outline a representation theoretic approach to determining the Cayley degree of an algebraic group.

Let  $X$  be an irreducible algebraic variety endowed with an action of an algebraic group  $H$ , and let  $V$  be a vector space over  $k$  of dimension  $\dim X$  endowed with a linear action of  $H$ . Then rational dominant  $H$ -maps  $X \dashrightarrow V$  are described as follows. Let  $M$  be a submodule of the  $H$ -module  $k(X)$  such that

- (i)  $M$  is isomorphic to the  $H$ -module  $V^*$ ,
- (ii)  $k(X)$  is algebraic over the subfield  $k(M)$  generated by  $M$  over  $k$ .

By (ii),  $k(M)/k$  is a purely transcendental extension of degree  $\dim X$ . Since  $k(V)$  is generated over  $k$  by  $V^*$ , any isomorphism of  $H$ -modules  $V^* \rightarrow M$  can be uniquely extended up to an  $H$ -equivariant embedding  $\iota: k(V) \hookrightarrow k(X)$  whose image is  $k(M)$ . This embedding determines a rational dominant  $H$ -map  $\psi: X \dashrightarrow V$  such that  $\psi^* = \iota$ . We have

$$\deg \psi = [k(X) : k(M)]. \quad (7)$$

Any dominant rational  $H$ -map  $X \dashrightarrow V$  is obtained in this way.

Now suppose  $G$  is a connected reductive linear algebraic group,  $X = T$  is a maximal torus,  $V = \mathfrak{t}$  is the Lie algebra of  $T$  and  $H = W = N_G(T)/T$  is the Weyl group. In view of Lemma 2(b) the above approach relates generalized Cayley maps of  $G$  to the  $W$ -module structure of  $k(T)$ . This connection may be used to prove upper bounds on  $\text{Cay}(G)$ .

**Example 5.** Let  $G = \mathbf{G}_2$ . Use the notation of Section 5. Let  $t_i$  be the restriction of  $y_i$  to  $T$ . Then  $t_1t_2t_3 = 1$  and  $k(T) = k(t_1, t_2)$ . Put

$$z_i := t_i - t_i^{-1}. \quad (8)$$

From the description of the  $W$ -actions on  $T$  and  $\mathfrak{t}$  given in Section 5 it follows that

$$M := \{\alpha_1z_1 + \alpha_2z_2 + \alpha_3z_3 \mid \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3 = 0, \alpha_i \in k\} \quad (9)$$

is a submodule of the  $W$ -module  $k(T)$  that is isomorphic to the  $W$ -module  $\mathfrak{t}^*$ . Let

$$s_1 := z_1 - z_2, \quad s_2 := z_1 - z_3 \quad (10)$$

Then  $s_1, s_2$  is a basis of  $M$ , so  $k(M) = k(s_1, s_2)$ . We have  $k(t_1, s_1, s_2) = k(T)$  because  $t_2 = (t_1^2 - 1)(t_1^2 s_1 + t_1 s_2 - t_1^3 - t_1^2 + t_1 + 1)^{-1}$ . It follows from (8), (10) that

$$\begin{cases} -t_2 + t_2^{-1} = s_1 - t_1 + t_1^{-1}, \\ t_1 t_2 - t_1^{-1} t_2^{-1} = s_2 - t_1 + t_1^{-1}. \end{cases} \quad (11)$$

Eliminating  $t_2$  and  $t_2^{-1}$  from (11), we obtain the following equation:

$$\begin{aligned} t_1^6 - (s_1 + s_2)t_1^5 + (s_1 s_2 - 2s_1 - 2s_2 - 1)t_1^4 + (s_1^2 + s_2^2 - 5)t_1^3 \\ + (s_1 s_2 + 2s_1 + 2s_2 + 1)t_1^2 + (s_1 + s_2 + 1)t_1 + 1 = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Thus for the conjugating and adjoint actions of  $H := W$  respectively on  $X := T$  and  $V := \mathfrak{t}$ , and for  $M$  defined by (9), the above conditions (i), (ii) hold and  $[k(T) : k(M)] \leq 6$ . Hence by (7), (6), and Lemma 2, there exists a generalized Cayley map of  $G$  of degree  $[k(T) : k(M)]$ . In particular, this implies that  $\text{Cay}(\mathbb{G}_2) \leq 6$  (of course, by Theorem 3, we know that in fact  $\text{Cay}(\mathbb{G}_2) = 2$ ).  $\square$

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